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# INSIDE N.I.

## MEMBERSHIP CHAIRMAN'S REPORT

February 1985 Applications for Membership: The following persons have applied for membership. If no written objections are received by April 1, 1985, their membership will become effective on that date.

- 2098 Victor England, Box 34, Quarryville, Pa. 17566  
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- 2099-MT Donald J. Wacker, P. O. Box 1832, Elizabeth, N.J. 07207  
(Great Britain, Switzerland, World Types)
- 2100-MT David Wolfer, 4500 19th St., #449, Boulder, Colo. 80302  
(Latin American, Europe under Napoleon, Japan)
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## DONATIONS REPORT

We wish to acknowledge the following donations received since the last report:

| <u>Name</u>         | <u>Type of Donation</u> | <u>Preference of Use</u> |
|---------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| FRALEY, Marvin L.   | \$10.00 Cash            | Building Fund            |
| HARANO, Takao       | \$10.00 Cash            | General Operating Fund   |
| JARMAN, Gordon, Jr. | \$10.00 Cash            | General Operating Fund   |
| LEWIS, Jack E.      | \$10.00 Cash            | Building Fund            |
| SAXEN, Richard W.   | \$5.00 Cash             | General Operating Fund   |

\*\*\*\*\*

## LIBRARIAN'S REPORT

I. Acknowledgement is made below to those who have donated material to the NI Library.

### William E. Benson

KONKER, ELIZABETH A. *Colonial New England: The Cashless Society*. Pub. 1975, 75pp, illus.

KONKER, ELIZABETH A. *A Money in Colonial New England*. Pub. 1974, 38pp, illus.

Walter H. Major

VOGT, GEORGE W., DR. *Standard Catalog of Mexican Coins, Paper Money and Medals.* Pub. 1978, 256pp, illus.

II. In addition to the above the Library would like to add special thanks to Walter Major for the donation of seventy-nine other volumes to the Library. Through this generous gift we were able to duplicate many volumes on our shelves of which we had only one copy. This is greatly appreciated as we are able to respond immediately to new requests when one copy is already out on loan.

III. We would also like to thank William Benson for his gift of additional material to the library over the two listed above.

IV. Due to the time lag between writing Library reports and their subsequent publication, this is being written the day before Christmas. While doing so it reminded me that the NI membership has made very good use of the slide collection this year but more could be done. There are a number of sets, especially the ones on early Christian coinage, that are appropriate for showing to a non-collecting group. Any member interested please write for a list of the sets.

Granvyl G. Hulse, Jr.  
NI Librarian

\*\*\*\*\*

#### ERRONEOUS VOLUME NUMBER SHOWN ON SOME 1984 ISSUES

The October, November and December 1984 issues (Nos. 10,11,12) of the *NI BULLETIN* erroneously show the Volume Number as 19. The correct number should be 18. Please correct the number on your copies of those issues. We apologize for the oversight.

\*\*\*\*\*

#### BULGARIAN CURRENCY REFORM OF 1952

*by John DeMarais, Lincoln, Nebraska, NI #1539*

Bulgaria carried out a reform of her currency on May 12, 1952. At that time all old coins and notes were exchanged and old obligations were stated in terms of new currency. The basic rate of conversion was 25 old leva for 1 new lev; however, the actual currency was exchanged at varying rates as low as 200:1. Wages, salaries, deposits, and postage rates were all converted at the 25:1 rate. The notes and coins introduced at this time were all dated 1951. The new notes were for 1, 3, 5, 10, 25, 50, 100 and 200 leva. The coinage included brass 1, 3, 5 stotinki pieces, and cupro-nickel 10 and 25 stotinki ones. The new currency continued in circulation until 1962.

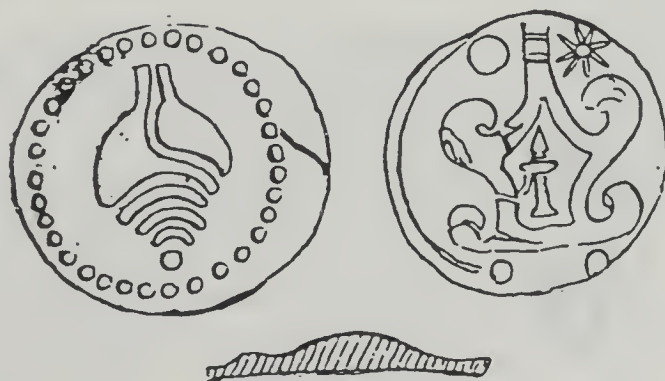
The postage stamps of the period following the 1952 reform demonstrate the 25:1 rate. The new stamps were often in 2, 4, 12, 16, 44 and 80 stotinki values that corresponded to 50 stotinki, 1, 3, 4, 11 and 20 leva in old money. The coins and notes of the 1952 reform are very common since the Bulgarian government sold large quantities of these after the 1962 reform.

# A SURVEY OF NATIVE SOUTHEAST ASIAN COINAGE CIRCA 450-1850

*Robert S. Wicks, Ph.D., Oxford, Ohio, NI #1839*

Over a period of roughly fourteen hundred years, from the early fifth century until the middle of the nineteenth, nearly one thousand different cointypes were produced in Southeast Asia, struck in gold, silver, tin and brass. This coin-producing area extends from the eastern rim of the Bay of Bengal to the Pacific coast of Viet Nam, and from the highlands of Burma, Thailand and Laos, to the islands of Sumatra, Java and the Philippines. The native coinage of Southeast Asia provides valuable clues about dynastic succession in the region, the nature of trade on a local and regional basis, and the movement of religious ideas throughout Southeast Asia. Despite this richness, native Southeast Asian coinage is a largely untapped resource for historical research, due, in part, to the absense of a general survey of indigenous coin issues.

The present paper attempts to define, in broad terms, the nature of indigenous Southeast Asian coinage. Following a general review of the historical development of native coinage, an assessment is made of the significance of Southeast Asian numismatic studies and what can be done to ensure continued progress in the field.



*PEGU. Conch/Śrīvatsa Class A. Silver. Natural Size. Found near Saigon. Fifth Century.*

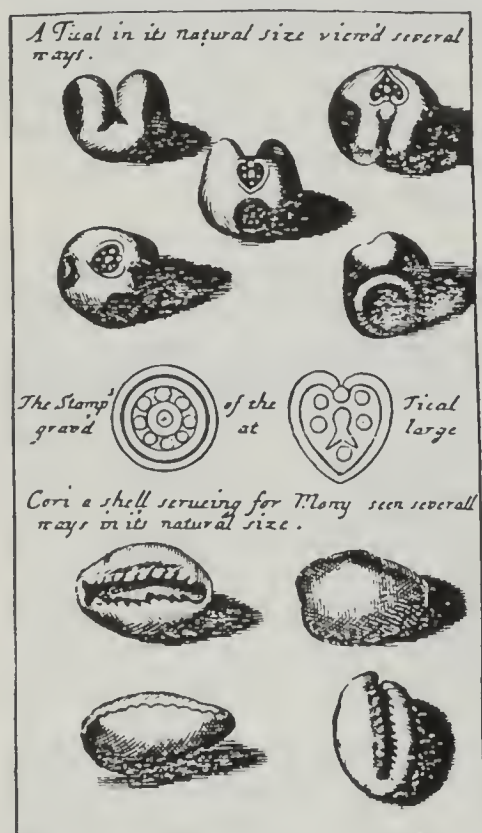
Southeast Asia's earliest coinage, an uninscribed silver Conch/Śrīvatsa type found in lower Burma, Arakan and southern Viet Nam, dates to the fifth century after Christ. The *Śrīvatsa* reverse, a symbol of prosperity and a reference to Sri Laksmi, is the link among all mainland coinages of the first millenium. This early coinage lasts through the ninth century. The ensuing four or five hundred years on mainland Southeast Asia are without a native coinage.

Coinage was reintroduced on the mainland by the middle of the fifteenth century. On the Arakan coast of Burma, Naramaikhla reportedly adopted a Bengali style silver coinage following his return from Gaur about the



TAVOY. To [mythical animal]/Wheel of the Law. Pali inscribed around reading "Land of Great Rest [or Happiness]". Tin-lead alloy. Natural size. Eighteenth century. From Bartolomeo's SYSTEMA BRAHMANICUM (1791). (Slightly reduced diameter. A.Ed.)

year 1430. In lower Burma, tin-lead coinage with a *hantha* (goose) impress was apparently first minted in 1538 by Hsinbyumyashin. The earliest reference to coinage among the Thai dates to 1512-1515, although there is evidence to suppose they were minting silver bullet and Ch'iang coins by about 1450. According to Cambodian chronicles, the usurper Kan (ca. 1500) was the first Khmer ruler to mint a flat uniface coin in gold and silver.

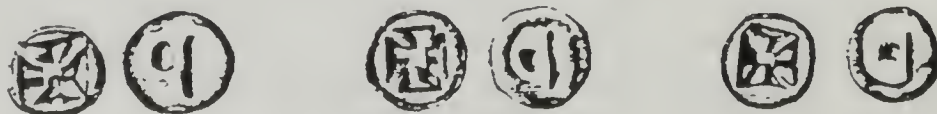


CAMBODIA. Uniface silver coins with bird facing left. Silver. Natural size. 18th and 19th centuries.

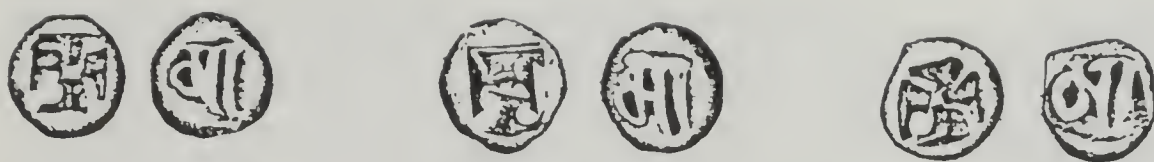
Native coinage continued to be issued in most mainland states, with the notable exception of Burma proper, until the middle of the nineteenth century. At that time western minting technology replaced earlier coining methods.

THAILAND (Ayudhya). Bullet coins and cowrie shells of King Narai. Silver. Natural size. Late 17th century. From de la Loubere THE KINGDOM OF SIAM (1688).

The native rulers of island Southeast Asia issued extensive coinages in gold, silver, tin and copper. During the first millenium Sandalwood Flower coins (impressed with a four-petal incuse and a single letter inscription) struck in gold



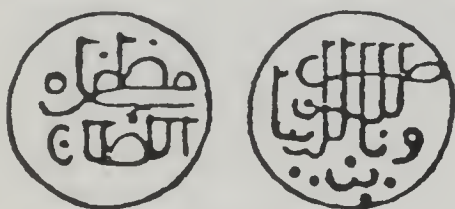
SUMATRA. Sandalwood flower coins with single reverse graph. Natural size. Gold. Late first Millenium.



JAVA. Sandalwood flower coins with single reverse graph MĀ. Silver.  
Natural size. Eighth or Ninth century.

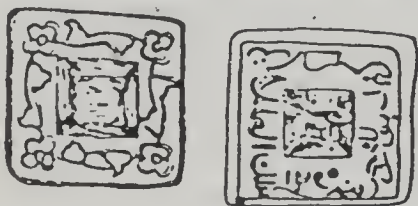
silver and electrum. The earliest specimens of this type are from south central Java and date to the eighth century. Later variants are found throughout central and eastern Java as well as in parts of Sumatra and the Malay peninsula. A gold Piloncito coinage from Java and the Philippines is important during the tenth to twelfth centuries.

By about 1400, native issues are replaced by square-holed cash imported from China. The fourteenth and fifteenth centuries also mark the advent of an Islamic coinage in the archipelago. Early in the fourteenth century, Samudra-Pasai in north central Sumatra issued a gold coinage with Arabic inscriptions. Aceh, Samudra-Pasai's successor, along with Johore and other states on the Malay peninsula, followed Samudra's lead. By 1600, Makassar (on the island of Sulawesi) had adopted Islam and began issuing a gold coinage of its own.



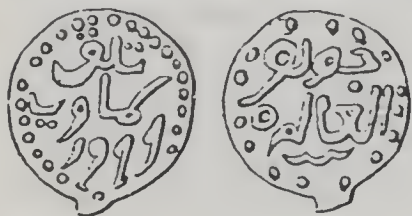
MALACCA. Muẓaffar Shāh al-sultān [1446-1456]/nāṣir al-dūnya wa al-dīn [Defender of the World and of Religion]. Tin-lead alloy. Struck. Natural size.

At Malacca, a struck Arabic-inscribed coinage was introduced about 1450. Other Malay states also issued gold and tin coinages, including Johore, Kedah, Trengganu, Patani, Kalantan and Songkhla. Gold issues were prevalent until Spanish silver replaced them in the late seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries. Local coinage on the peninsula was subsequently limited to tin issues. Tin ingots, which formed a staple



PAHANG. Tampang. Reverse inscription reads: malik āl-adil tarikh kapada būlan Redjab sanat 1295 [1878] -- The Just King, date in the month of Rejab, year 1878.

commodity for several producer states from very early times, were transformed into a true coinage only in the early nineteenth century, most notably in Pahang on the east coast of the Malay peninsula.



ACEH (north Sumatra). Djawar a-'Ālam Shāh/Telok Semāwi 1227 [1822]. Tin-lead alloy. Natural size. Telok Semawi was a port to the east of Aceh.



The east coast of Sumatra witnessed the production of an extensive coinage during the nineteenth century. Palembang was the greatest producer, although Jambi and Siak also issued local coinages.

Several localities on the island of Java (Banten, Cheribon and Surakarta) produced tin-lead coinages, some of which were based on Chinese prototypes. The issues of Banten document the adoption of Islam on the island during the sixteenth century.

*PALEMBANG. UNDECIPHERED monogram coin with PALEMBANG in the legend. Tin-Lead alloy. Natural size. Probably 18th century.*

Both the Brunei and Sulu sultanates had distinctive Islamic coinages. Brunei's tin emissions began sometime in the sixteenth century and continued through the eighteenth. The only coins with accession-year dates from insular Southeast Asia

are tin and copper coins from Sulu made between 1735 and 1821. And finally, Chinese mining associations on Bangka, the Malay peninsula and Borneo issued several private coinages during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.



*SULU. Sulṭān Muḥammad Sharaf ud-Dīn [1798-1808]/1204 [?]. Tin-lead alloy. Natural size.*

Native coinage of Southeast Asia is remarkable for its diversity and uneven distribution through time and in space. There is no period when coinage is in use throughout Southeast Asia. Perhaps the best examples of societies which did not use coin are the medieval states of Pagan and Angkor. Coinage was present in Burma and Cambodia at least by the fifth or sixth century, yet, with the establishment of Pagan and Angkor coin use virtually ceased. It has been suggested that they rejected coinage and returned to a barter economy as part of a reaction against earlier rulers. Cambodia issued an extensive silver coinage beginning some time in the early sixteenth century. Burma proper did not adopt coinage until the nineteenth century.

Coinage in early Southeast Asia provides valuable clues about dynastic succession and supplements what is known from other sources. The very existence of a 1708 commemorative gold kupang from Trengganu, for example, would indicate that the traditional founding date for Trengganu is some seventeen years too late. Another example is Sūriyacandra, an early seventh century figure from Arakan. He is not included in the dynastic list of Candra rulers drawn up by Ānandacandra sometime around 729. We do have examples of his coinage, however, which can be dated to the early seventh century, suggesting perhaps that he regained the throne for a short while following the invasion of Vesali by Mahāvīra. Because his existence would dispute the claims of dynastic legitimacy proclaimed by Ānandacandra, Sūriyacandra's name was excluded from royal genealogy. The coinage of Harikela documents monetary and political developments during the eighth and ninth centuries, an otherwise unknown

period of Bengal's history. In other instances the numismatic record confirms information available from local chronicles. The dated coinage of Mrauk-U Arakan and the Sulu sultanate generally confirm the traditionally accepted reign periods of local rulers, however there are several cases of disagreement.

In addition to clarifying chronological concerns, coinage is useful for discussing the nature of trade on a local and regional basis. For example, the widespread geographical distribution of Rising Sun/Śrīvatsa coins, ranging from Burma to southern Viet Nam, suggests that it represents mainland Southeast Asia's major trade coinage during the first millenium. Other mainland coinages of the period are much more limited in their geographical distribution and indicate a restricted usage. Other examples are as yet of uncertain significance. The distribution of coinage in island Southeast Asia during the first millenium is limited to a few major geographical centers: the west coast of Sumatra, southern Thailand in the vicinity of the Bay of Bandon, south central Java and the main Philippine islands of Marinduque, Samar, Leyte and Mindanao. Despite these concise geographical boundaries, the coins cannot yet be attributed to specific political entities, such as Śrīvijaya or the Śailendras. What is certain is that the traditional attribution of Sandalwood Flower coins to Majapahit does not rest on a firm foundation. Indeed, documentary evidence amply demonstrates that Majapahit Java imported large quantities of Chinese cash which effectively caused a cessation of native gold and silver coin issues.

Surviving coinage can provide insight into the importance of a political or economic power. The extent of Thai influence on mainland Southeast Asia as early as the sixteenth century can be gauged by the spread and use of bullet coinage as a circulating medium. The *kupang* weight standard prevalent throughout island Southeast Asia from the ninth through the nineteenth centuries, attests to the unified nature of Indonesian commerce.

A third area often clarified by the numismatic record is religious history. Most native coinage reflects religious concerns. For instance, Islamic coinage was introduced into northern Sumatra in the late thirteenth century and closely followed the introduction of Islam there. The spread of Islam throughout Southeast Asia, to Arakan, Sumatra, the Malay Peninsula, Java, Borneo, Sulawesi and Sulu, is easily documented through surviving coinage.

For all the cultural diversity of Southeast Asia, there are several characteristics which apply to coinage produced throughout the region. Three traits have been singled out for discussion: principles of coin design, preference for particular coin metals, and the technology of coin production.

Almost without exception, coins produced by native states evidence little interest in formal coin design. Even coins demonstrating clear antecedents, such as the Chinese issues from Bangka, Borneo and the Malay peninsula, show little regard for the careful placement of motifs and the development of a balanced and considered composition. This lack of crispness contrasts markedly with coinage from Indian areas or the Far East. Aesthetically pleasing issues from Southeast Asia stand out due to their scarcity -- Bull/Trisula coinage from Arakan, an undated

monogrammatic tin coin from Palembang (see *illus. #237 earlier in this paper, A. Ed.*) Kelantan gold coins, decorative script issues from the northern Malay states and several of the uniface silver coins from Cambodia.

Most Southeast Asian coins of the first millenium are uninscribed or possess rudimentary inscriptions, ranging from a single letter to the name of a ruler or that of a locality. With the exception of Mrauk-U Arakan, which, due to influence from eastern India, issued an extensive series of silver coins with lengthy inscriptions, later mainland coinages tend to be uninscribed, presenting the numismatist with an almost impossible task of attribution. With the adoption of Islam in island Southeast Asia, most notably in Sumatra, Sulawesi and the Malay peninsula, coin inscriptions come to be longer and more informative. Although written in Arabic, the inscriptions rarely copy directly or completely a coin legend from the Islamic world of India or the Middle East. This selective borrowing could well provide a fruitful area of research into the image and role of Islam in Southeast Asia.

In general, coins were minted from locally-available materials. A notable exception is the importance of considerable quantities of Spanish-American silver coins into Burma and Thailand during the seventeenth and subsequent centuries for the purpose of being reminted into local coin. Mainland societies preferred silver as a circulating medium. Although often found in jewelry, gold was rarely used for coin. In island Southeast Asia (including southern Burma) coin metals included gold, silver, brass and tin. There is a shift from classical times, when gold, electrum and silver were preferred coin materials, to the medieval and modern periods when tin and tin-lead alloys were common, supplemented by occasional issues in gold. Only three coins are known in copper or brass. A Palembang coin, the first issues of Banten, and a late Sulu coin.

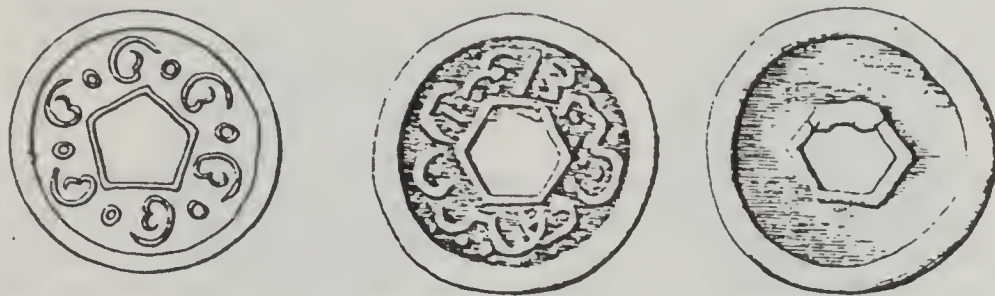
Flans are rarely of a consistent size, weight standards are seldom adhered to, and the execution of a coin design is frequently less than skillful. These characteristics serve to point out that coin production was not under strict control of a central authority and seem to indicate that mint workers were not engaged in coin-making on a full-time basis.

Coins of the first millenium, from mainland and insular mints, were all struck between two dies: except for Bhaddapiṭha/Śrīvatsa, Rising sun/Śrīvatsa and some early Harikela coins, dies were rarely fixed. During later Southeast Asian history, precious metal coins are consistently struck while base metal coins are cast in stone or metal molds. A notable exception is the struck tin coinage of Malacca during the second half of the fifteenth century.

No single weight standard ever became dominant on the mainland, although the Thai baht was extremely important during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The *kupang* (ca. 0.60 gm) was common throughout island Southeast Asia from at least the eighth century and remained so until the middle of the nineteenth, an example of remarkable metrological longevity.

Other characteristics of native coinage, such as the adoption of particular scripts, are perhaps more readily apparent. For the first millenium, Indian-derived forms predominate. By 1300, the Arabic script was introduced, along with Islam, into the archipelago. Local variants

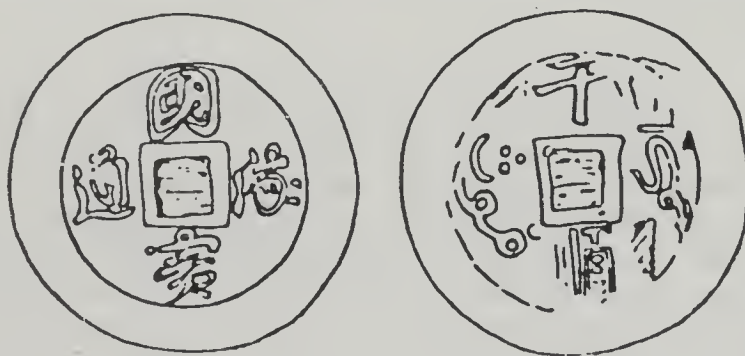
tend to be greatly simplified, sometimes to the point of being illegible. Only in some rare fifteenth century coins from Arakan and a few seven-teenth-eighteenth century issues from Brunei, is a more traditional Arabic script adopted.



411. *BANTEN*. 4 and 0. Brass. Natural size. Early 16th century.

412. *BANTEN*. Pangeran Rātu ing Banten [*Pangeran Ratu of Banten*]. Brass. Natural size. Sixteenth or seventeenth century.

During the second millenium local scripts come to the fore. On Java and Sumatra, the Javanese script was used in several areas. In Burma, Pali is common on issues from Tenasserim. Several variants of Thai script can be found on coins from Northern Thailand and Laos. Chinese



*PAHANG*. *JOKOH*. Kuo-Liu T'ung Pao [*Currency for general circulation*]/ Ch'ien-shun [*A Thousand Prosperities*] Aku punya [*Aku's token*]. Tin-lead alloy. Natural size. Late nineteenth century.

inscriptions cluster in the mining districts of the Malay peninsula, Bangka and Borneo. Occasionally coins from Java, particularly those from Cheribon, also display Chinese graphs. A few adopt western inscriptions.

Much remains to be accomplished in the areas of coin manufacture, numismatic chronology, the geographical distribution of cointypes and the significance of the multitude of coin symbols and inscriptions. If our understanding of native coinage is to progress beyond the most elementary level, several objectives must be achieved. First, a comprehensive catalog of known coin specimens must be compiled and kept up-to-date. Second, new coinfinds need to be fully and accurately reported. Third, a central file of coin photographs should be maintained to provide interested scholars with visual resources for comparative purposes. Fourth, a bibliography of published coin studies and a file of research-in-progress should be maintained and made

available to scholars and collectors both to ensure continued progress in Southeast Asian numismatic studies and to promote active collaboration among researchers. The degree to which it is possible to fulfill these goals will determine the level of success of any future study of early Southeast Asian coinage. They could perhaps best be served through a formal association dedicated to the preservation of Southeast Asia's numismatic heritage supported by a wide body of scholars, collectors and museums.

Only when the value of the numismatic record is properly understood and appreciated can we expect to see more progress in this here-to-fore neglected field of study. It is my hope that in the future it will be possible to go beyond a mere tabulation of major cointypes and varieties and produce a truly integrated history of native Southeast Asian coinage.

#### N O T E

The purpose of the present article is to introduce an area of numismatic interest that is unfamiliar to most readers. The author's doctoral dissertation, from which this article is taken, "A Survey of Native Southeast Asian Coinage circa 450-1850: Documentation and Typology" (Cornell University, 1983), is available through University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, MI 48106.

This dissertation represents a first step toward making native coinage more accessible to scholars and researchers. It is based on research conducted in Southeast Asia, in major United States and European collections, through correspondence with collectors, dealers and museums in the United States, Europe and Asia, and on previously published studies of Southeast Asian coinage. The first half of the thesis is devoted to mainland coinages from Burma, Thailand, Laos and Cambodia, along with related developments in Bengal and Assam. The second half is concerned with island Southeast Asia: Sumatra, the Malay Peninsula, Java, Borneo, Sulawesi and the Philippines. It will be noted that the coinage of Viet Nam is not included in the present survey.

Within each section a general introduction is followed by a compilation of literary sources bearing on indigenous coin production, chiefly from inscriptions, chronicles and travel accounts. This is supplemented by a descriptive typology of known coinage, with information on coin design, manufacture, weight standards, and the geographical distribution of coinfinds. When possible, bibliographical citations refer to published examples of native cointypes. Representative coin illustrations, maps, tables and a comprehensive bibliography of Southeast Asian coin studies are included.

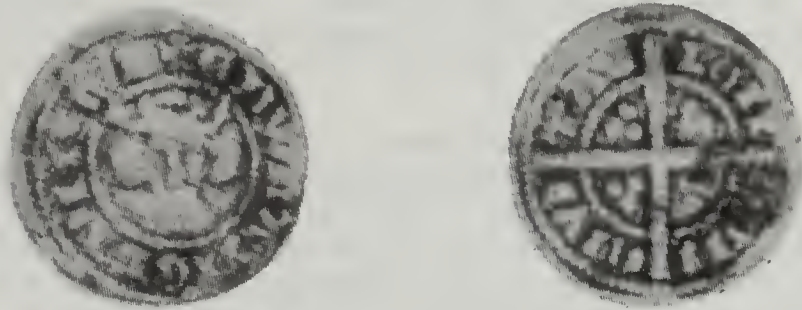
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#### LEATHER AS MONEY

Yes, leather was used in times of strife as Necessity money in places in Holland, Germany and France. During a siege the town of Wismar, Germany issued Siege Klippes. And in Mexico some Haciendas used leather for tokens paid to their workers.

## "EDWARD I -- A CANDIDATE FOR BRITAIN'S GREATEST KING"

*by Lee Grossman, San Antonio, TX., NLG, BNS, TNA, NI #1707*



*Edward I's Halfpenny (2X)*

He was called "Longshanks", although why is not clear, unless it was because of the long cross on his coins.

Edward I, was born at Westminster on June 16, 1239, the oldest son of Henry III, King of England, of the House of Plantagenet. He was married to Eleanor of Castile in 1254, when he was 15 years old.

He took a vacillating course in the struggle of the barons against the crown for constitutional and ecclesiastical reforms. However, when warfare broke out between the crown and the nobility, Edward fought on the side of his father, the king, winning the decisive battle of Evesham in 1265.

In 1271, he left England to join the Seventh Crusade. Following his father's death in 1272, Edward was recognized as king by the English barons, although he was still abroad. In 1274, upon his return to England, he was crowned Edward I. The tall (he was almost a head taller than most of the nobles), handsome warrior was determined to model his life after the legendary Arthur.

The first years of his reign were a period of consolidating his power. He suppressed corruption in the administration of justice; restricted the jurisdiction of the ecclesiastical courts to church affairs, and eliminated the papacy's overlordship over England.

Upon the refusal of Prince Llewellyn ab Gruffydd, the ruler of Wales, to submit to the English crown, Edward began the military conflict that resulted, in 1284, in the annexation of Llewellyn's principality, to the English crown. The nearly ten years of fighting, resulted in the death of Prince Llewellyn and the execution of Prince David.

Only one occurrence marred Edward's long reign.

In 1275, a statute was put in force which forbid the Jews to lend money at interest. The Jews had become one of the most affluent segments of the population, and the law was designed to get them to look for other ways to earn a living. The Jews had followed William the Conqueror to escape persecution. They were provided with royal protection to establish a credit network. The Roman Catholic Church forbade its members to practice usury.

The Jews became wealthy and powerful. The clergy fought what it felt

was high interest rates. The Jews had to charge the rates to protect their investments in an often uncertain market. The clergy and church members made demands on Henry II for Jewry's expulsion from England, but Henry II ignored them. Richard I left on a crusade and left the Jewish subjects to the mercy of Prince John. Hundreds of innocent Jews were slaughtered and the loss of property was huge. Left with little, the Jews, however, gave heavily to Richard's ransom.

Later, many, to survive, began clipping coins. To appease the church, Edward ordered the arrest of every Jew and their home searched. Those with silver clippings were hanged. By 1290, a royal commission had ordered the expulsion of all Jews from England. As British Jewry was not permitted to take money or goods, leaving the country was probably a relief from the cruel restrictions that had been thrown at them for ten years. Bankers from Italy soon arrived to fill the void.

The people of Scotland showed disaffection to Edward. In agreement to arbitrate among the claimants to the Scottish throne, Edward, in 1291, had exacted (as a prior condition), the recognition, by all concerned, of his overlordship of Scotland. The Scots later repudiated him and made an alliance with France against England. To meet with the critical situation in Scotland and Wales, Edward summoned a parliament. ("Parliament" means "discussion". Probably taken from the French "parler" - "to talk". Historians have called Edward's parliament, the Model Parliament because it was a representative body, and in that respect, was the forerunner of all future parliaments).

A contest for the Scottish crown resulted in the ten contestants acknowledging Edward as lord paramount of Scotland. He decided in 1292 in favor of John Balliol, who swore fealty to him. Balliol soon renounced his allegiance and a war broke out, which resulted in Balliol's surrender and exile.

War between England and France in 1293 was a result of the efforts of France to curb Edward's power in Gascony. The duchy was located in the southwest corner of France bordering the Pyrennees Mountains. Edward lost Gascony that same year (and did not again come into possession of the duchy until 1303). Also in 1293, the Welsh rose in rebellion.

Assured by Parliament of support at home, Edward took to the field and suppressed the Welsh insurrection. In 1296, after invading and conquering Scotland, he declared himself king of that realm. To make peace with the nobles of England, Edward approved of the Great Charter (Magna Carta), by virtue of which the people were to determine for themselves the amount of taxes to be levied. In 1297, Sir William Wallace, a Scottish chieftain, collected a large army to fight for the freedom of Scotland, and defeated the English at Stirling. In 1298, Edward again invaded Scotland, and subdued Wallace at the Battle of Falkirk, which resulted in the execution of Wallace as a traitor. In winning the battle, Edward achieved the greatest triumph of his career, but he failed to crush Scottish opposition.

The conquest of Scotland became the ruling passion of Edward's life. He was, however, compelled by the nobles, clergy, and commons to desist in his attempts to raise, by arbitrary taxes, the funds he needed for campaigns. In 1299, Edward made peace with France, and married Margaret, sister of Philip III, King of France.

To adjust difficulties with Scotland, Edward prepared a new constitution authorizing Scottish representation in the English Parliament, but the measure was not fully accepted by the Scots. A new revolt broke out and culminated in the coronation of Robert Bruce as King of Scotland in 1306. In 1307, Edward I set out for the third time to subdue the Scots, but died at Carlisle, within sight of the country he had planned to subdue.

Edward I was succeeded by his fourth son, Edward II (by Edward's first wife, Eleanor of Castile). The three elder sons had died.

Edward's vigorous reign is important to English constitutional history. Civil service, internal improvements, and rights of the people were extended largely during his reign. His model Parliament represented all three estates and was a great step forward. He approved the provisions of the Magna Carta and proclaimed the doctrine on which is based the concept of "no taxation without representation".

My silver coin is a halfpenny struck at the London mint, and is in about Fine condition. It is about the size of a dime, but paper thin. On the obverse side, the frontal bust of Edward is surrounded by lettering "EDWARD/R/ANGL/DNS/HYB" ("Edward, King of England, Lord of Hibernia"). The reverse has a long cross with three pellets (dots) in each angle. Lettering surrounds the long cross: "LON/DON/CIVI/TAS" ("The City of London"). It is listed in Seaby's 1966 edition of the "Standard Catalogue of British Coins" as #856.

British coinage was not the best during this time period. These coins are usually poorly struck and the whole of the legend is rarely (if at all) to be found on them. This period of poorly struck coinage began with the reign of Henry II, who was Henry of Anjou before ascending the throne. He called upon a French goldsmith, Philip Aimer (of Tours), to design a new type. The new design was still no great improvement, but were better struck. The facing head is a crude one, as though the die was punched out in a series of curved lines, dots and crescents. So it isn't surprising to see that the lettering is made up in the same way. Henry's short cross, on the reverse, extended from the center to the lettering. Edward's coinage was the beginning of the long cross, which extended to the edge. The length of the cross -- in my opinion -- had no significant religious point. I honestly believe it was used to facilitate the practice of cutting coins into fractions. The first eight years of Edward's rule still had Henry's coins struck and used.



*Another of Edward I's Halfpennies  
(2x)*

When coins were struck with Edward's name on them, the reverse with the long cross commenced. The coins were better struck and better designed. The groat was introduced and was equal to four pence. The groat was probably copied from the French "gros tournois", which was

about the same size. Also, round halfpennies and farthings (featherings) were introduced, which eliminated the cutting of the penny.

All coinage was of silver. Most are thin, with an irregular roundness. All of Edward's reverses featured a long cross, with three pellets in the angles. It is extremely doubtful if any two obverses are alike, with the variances in the lettering and the face. All of Edward's are facing forward.

Edward instituted a new type coin called a 'groat' in 1278. It was equal to four pence and weighed 89 grams.

You should understand that valuations of silver coins can and will increase or decrease based upon the value of silver at that time, and the supply and demand of the coins.

Most of the silver pennies were struck in London, with others struck at mints in Berwick-on-Tweed; Bristol; Bury St. Edmunds; Canterbury; Chester; Durham; Exeter; Kinston-upon-Hull; Lincoln; Newcastle-on-Tyne and York.

The silver halfpenny was similar to the groat and penny. Several varieties were struck at the London mint. And other mints that struck the halfpenny were Berwick-on-Tweed; Bristol; Lincoln; Newcastle-on-Tyne and York.

Silver farthings (1/4 pennies) were coined at London and a few provincial mints, including Berwick-on-Tweed; Bristol; Lincoln and York.

The reign of Edward I was the climax of feudal monarchy in England and one of the most significant reigns in the history of English monarchy. Edward was 33 years old when he gained the throne; active, resolute, everything a feudal king had to be to succeed in that day when personal qualities counted so much. He was properly warlike, chivalrous and courageous on one hand; pious, just and wise on the other.

*This is Lee's 82nd in a series of club talks and articles.*

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## LIBYAN CURRENCY REFORM OF 1952

*by John DeMarais, Lincoln, Nebraska, NI #1539*

The first currency of the Kingdom of Libya was introduced on March 24, 1952 some four months after Libya received its independence. The new currency replaced three currencies which had circulated in various parts of the country. Tripolitania had used Military Authority lire, Cyrenaica used Egyptian currency and Fezzan used Algerian francs. The new system was based on a pound, at par with the pound sterling, and was divided into 100 piastres of 10 milliemmes each. Seven denominations of notes dated 1951 were introduced in values of 5 and 10 piastres,  $\frac{1}{4}$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}$ , 1, 5 and 10 pounds. There were also cupro-nickel coins for 1 and 2 piastres and bronze ones for 1, 2 and 5 milliemmes. The coins were dated 1952, but were probably struck earlier.

## THE CHANGE TO THE GOLD STANDARD IN 13TH CENTURY EUROPE

by Irene Fraley Preston

(Reprinted with permission from *MEDIEVAL COINS XIII*, 1975, Alex Malloy)

The minting of a gold denomination at Florence, in 1252, was a turning point in the development of the Medieval European economy. The change so dramatically influenced European coinage systems, that the subject warrents at least this modest attempt to explain how and why it occurred.

During the fifth through seventh centuries, Europe had disintegrated into tribal units. By the end of this period, the Islamic peoples completely controlled the Mediterranean Sea; and while the breakdown of the old Roman political institutions and of communication with the centers of civilization left little demand or opportunity for commerce, coins were still being issued in isolated areas of the West. Byzantine-influenced Italy and Sicily continued the Byzantine coinage; and further west, Merovingian tribes issued imitations of late Roman-early Byzantine coins, including gold denominations. The Islamic dinar and dirhem were also well established in Moorish Spain. However, the monometallic coinage system established by Pepin and confirmed and refined by Charlemagne was to become the basis for all subsequent coinages within the Carolingian sphere of influence. According to this system, the pound of silver, weighing about 490 grams, equalled 20 solidi (also called sous or shillings), and 240 deniers (denarii). The denier was the only regularly struck denomination and weighed about 2 full grams of fine silver. The others were simply denominations of account. Furthermore, no matter what alloy the silver bullion, on what pound weight the system was based, or how many deniers the pound provided, the ration by account remained the same. (Evans, p. 484).

With the Carolingian Empire's dissolution into many feudal units, commerce and communications became so limited, that the petty barons who issued coins had little way of knowing what another lord's denier weighed, and little need to know. Coins were issued to accomodate transactions only within a given barony. Such localization in an agricultural society put so little demand upon the currency, that the result was a steady debasement of the denier. By the end of the eleventh century, most of Europe issued billon (copper and silver alloy) deniers, often in some areas weighing less than 0.50 grams (Pirenne, p.110; Cave and Coulson, p.126ff). At about this time, the Norse mark, weighing 218 grams (Pirenne, p.109; mark of Troyes weighed 244.75 grams; see Dieudonne) influenced the coinages of northern Europe and formed the basis of the coins of Cologne and Troyes.



*GOLD FLORIN (Struck in the Near East)*

When the conditions contributing to the decline of Europe's currencies was reversed, Europe was on its way to economic recovery. Land reclamation in Northern Europe, which both increased agricultural production and formed larger political units, was the first step towards the so-called Medieval commercial revolution. The Italian maritime communities were afforded an opportunity to master the Mediterran-

ean, when Muslim rulers of the eleventh century became tolerant of Christian pilgrims and merchants and when disunity among the Muslim politics caused some loss of control of the seas. Increased contact with the economically advanced countries of the East provided a model to which backward Europe could aspire. Meanwhile in Italy and Germany, the Holy Roman Empire provided a centralized government; and the Church, along with the Crusades, became a unifying factor of great force upon Medieval Europe.

Just as in the eleventh century the Normans had colonized the prosperous areas of south Italy and Sicily, so too at the beginning of the twelfth century the Crusades appropriated Syria and Palestine by force. In terms of numismatics, the Normans of Sicily issued imitations of the Muslim gold tari, or 1/4 dinar denomination, and Byzantine silver coins, while the Crusaders, soon after their capture of Muslim mints in Syria, struck counterfeits of Fatimid gold dinars. Therefore, through the Crusades, Europe not only gained a foothold in the East and a share in its economic prosperity, but also experienced the issuing of gold coins, albeit in imitative form to pass as genuine Arab currency. By comparison, the billon denier, which was still the only struck denomination in Europe, was pitifully inadequate on the international market.

In 1172, Genoa issued a larger denomination of fine silver, called the denarius grossus, or grosso, worth four of the Genoese billon deniers. However, the model for the larger denier was the English penny, which had declined at a much slower rate than those of the continent. It was 1.43 grams of 23/24 pure silver, and thus, about four times the value of the Genoese denier at 0.39 grams. Other states immediately followed Genoa's example. From Halle in Swabia came the new, finer denier, the heller. At Venice, in 1192, the gros matapan was issued originally to equal the two solidi, or 24 deniers. Thus by the end of the twelfth century, the growing markets of Europe had taken a step towards upgrading the currency; and although the same inflationary forces were at work on these new denominations, The Carolingian methods of accounting persisted. The denier was not dropped but was considered a fraction of the gros, and called the piccolo, or petty denier. Why, then, half a century later, was a gold coinage introduced into a traditionally monometallic system?



*GOLD Crusader, Agnus Dei*



*GOLD Venetian Ducat*

In 1232, in rivalry of the 24 carat Almohades gold dinar, Frederick II Hohenstaufen issued in Sicily the Augustalis, a medal-lion-like gold coin, weighing 5.28 grams at 20½ carats. (Lopez, p.227). Though it circulated mainly in Italy, it was sort of curio, determined by Greek tradition of the bezant (Evans, p.486), and collected by the monarchs of Europe. Although it was not fully integrated into the Sicilian system of weights, the precedent it set was indeed influential. In Syria, as well, during the sojourn of King Louis IX of France (1251-1254), the is-

sue of gold Arabic imitations was forbidden by the Pope. As a result, though it cannot be precisely dated, the Agnus Dei coin was struck, with Christian creeds written in Latin, weighing approximately 3.5 grams. (Grierson). This coinage of Western type and of reduced dinar weight was either an important step toward or the result of the appearance of a gold coin of European type and standard.

Therefore, the actual circumstances under which a gold denomination was issued in Europe were these. First, during the first half of the thirteenth century, European silver mines (Goslar, Freiburg) were reaching exhaustion, while gold mining was just beginning to be developed in Hungary, Bohemia, and Silesia. Because of the scarcity of silver and the relative availability of gold, the relative values of the metals converged, and it became feasible for gold and silver to enter a fixed system of weights and values. Secondly, since Europe's international finance and commerce were reaching their peak, the volume and velocity of transactions put an even greater strain on the currency. Florence was an important financial center for all Europe, and its lending process naturally required convenient denominations. Genoese international commerce also was reaching its peak. Therefore, at Florence, the bankers and administrators contrived a system in which gold of a certain weight and alloy could fit into their silver ponderal system. The gold florin, as the new coin was called, weighing 3.53 grams fine, equalled 20 silver Florentine gros, and 240 billon piccioli. Therefore, at Florence in November, 1252, a bimetallic system was established which, in theory, followed the Carolingian ratios of denominations. At about the same time, Genoa issued a series of gold coins parallel to its silver coinage. This system was devised to follow the Sicilian series of tari denominations and the Crusader Syrian dinar denominations, so that the unit genovin weighed 0.88 grams, the half 0.44 grams, and the quadruple or soldo de tari 3.52 grams. (Lopez, p.288ff). The gold coins of Florence and Genoa were designed to bear similar civic emblems to those of the silver coins. Thus, civic pride was another reason for issuing coins in the noblest metal.

All of Europe followed suit for political as well as economic motives. In 1257, despite the warning of his councillors, Henry III of England issued a gold 20 penny piece. In 1266, Louis IX also based his coinage system upon that of Florence, issuing the ecu d'or, weighing 4.22 grams and worth 20 silver gros tournois. (Dieudonne). In 1285, Venice issued the gold ducat in imitation of the weight of the florin, and with its own familiar design, the ducat soon surpassing even the florin on the international market. By the fourteenth century, almost all the countries of Europe were issuing a gold denomination, whether they copied the florin or ducat directly, or issued a gold coins of their own design and weight according to their economic needs. Devaluation continued its natural course, even altering the original relationships between denominations. While denominations were added to currencies as required, the basic 1:20;240 ratios existed in European coinages until the economic focal point shifted to the New World and the decimal system used there made the European system inconvenient.

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## BYZANTINE SEALS

by I. C. G. Campbell, Lincoln, Nebraska, NI #LM-12

Sigillography, or the study of seals, is an interesting side line to the collecting of Byzantine coins. Lead - and other seals - were widely used in the Byzantine Empire by the officials of the vast bureaucracy and ecclesiastical establishments.

Alex G. Malloy in his *No. XXI Catalog of Medieval Coins* has an excellent summary (illustrated) and a list of the translation of some of the leading titles that appear.

The books on this subject are exceedingly rare, out of print, and expensive, with the possible exception of Zacos and Veglery's *Byzantine Lead Seals*, Basel 1972, on which the classification in this article is based.

The Assumptionist Fathers in Kadikoy (Istanbul) in 1935 were working on a revision of Schlumberger's great work. However, during World War II they moved to Romania and I never did hear what happened to their work or collection, or their great library.

Zacos, the leading numismatic dealer in the Brand Bazar, Istanbul, whom I knew well from 1942-47 and again in 1954, built up a vast personal collection on which much of the 1972 work is based.

The seals used to turn up quite frequently in Istanbul, though I was never interested myself, and sometimes they were mistaken for coins. They often used the same type of designs and legends, so this was not surprising, particularly for imperial seals.

Sometimes I bought the seals from other bazaar dealers on behalf of Zacos, as if they had known that he wanted them, the prices would have gone way up.

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## THREE CENTURIES OF MEDIEVAL VENETIAN COINAGE

by Gordon Andreas Singer, Greenbelt, Maryland, NI #858

(Reprinted by permission from *DE MONETA*, July 1975 issue)

The medieval coinage of Venice began during the Carolingian era with the establishment of an imperial mint by Louis the Pious (814-840). However, the first coinage in the name of a Venetian doge (from L. *dux*, duke) did not appear until the reign of Vitale Michele II (1156-1172). After the beginning of the 13th century, Venetian coinage multiplied rapidly and became the dominant medium of exchange in the Eastern Mediterranean region.

From 1156 to 1471 the Venetians issued nine standard and several experimental denominations, of which the two most important were the gold *ducato* and the silver *grosso*. The basic designs of the various denominations underwent very little change throughout this period. Below are descriptions of the nine denominations, with illustrations of the designs, and a table showing which coins were issued by the various doges.

### DENOMINATIONS

Obv. St. Mark and  
reigning Doge.



Rev. Christ stg.  
stars surrounding.

*Ducato*

DUCATO: The *ducato d'oro* or gold ducat took its name from the original silver ducat; it was introduced in 1284, a generation after the other leading Italian states had begun their gold coinages. It was not long until the suffix *d'oro* was dropped from the coin's name. The gold ducat was first valued at 18 *grossi* of 32 *piccoli*, but its value continued to rise in terms of the minor coinage. The obverse features St. Mark and the doge; the reverse, Christ standing.



*Grosso*



*I*



*II*



*III*

GROSSO: The *grosso* was introduced in 1202, perhaps earlier, by Doge Enrico Dandolo. The new coin was first called the *ducato*, its large size soon led to a new name, the *grosso*. It was originally current for 24 *denari* or 2 *soldi*, although its value, too, continued to rise in relation to that of the minor coinage. The types are comprised of the doge and St. Mark, the patron of Venice, on the obverse; Christ appears seated on the reverse. Three main varieties of the

*grosso* are recognized: the first was struck until the time of Giovanni Gradenigo (1355-56); the second type, with the mintmasters' initials added to the reverse, was introduced by Andrea Contarini (1368-82); this was soon replaced by the third type, which acquired a reverse legend for the first time, in 1394.



*Mezzanino*

MEZZANINO: The *mezzanino* was valued at one-half (*mezzo*) *grosso*, which resulted in its name. Since its value was fixed to that of the *grosso*, it fluctuated in relation to the minor denominations, too. Struck by only three doges, its depiction of the resurrection of Christ is most distinctive.

SOLDINO: The name of this denomination is derived from the Latin *solidus* meaning little *soldo* or *solidus*. It was introduced at the



*Soldino*

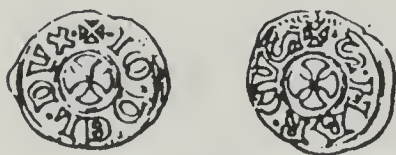


I



II

same time as the *mezzanino*, but its value was fixed at 12 *denari*. The obverse design features the doge kneeling, holding a standard; there are two reverse varieties, a lion rampant and a winged lion seated. The change in design came during the reign of Andrea Contarini (1368-1382).



*Piccolo*

PICCOLO: The small size of the *piccolo* gave the denomination its name; technically the *piccolo* is a *denaro* (L. *denarius*). Until some variations appeared in the late 15th century, the *piccolo* featured short cross designs on both obverse and reverse. Many

of these coins are found somewhat scyphate or cup-shaped.



*Bianco*

BIANCO: This coin was valued at one-half a *denaro*; its name, meaning white, refers to its light color. The reverse of the *bianco* features a rather crude bust of Saint Mark.

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*Quartarolo*

QUARTAROLO and DOPPIO QUARTAROLO: The *quartarolo* was a billon coin valued at one-fourth of a *denaro*; its name was therefore derived from its value. Four doges coined a *doppio* or double *quartarolo*, although the days of such fractional denominations were numbered. The two coins featured a cruciform V N C E on the obverse

and a cross with fleurs de lis in the angles on the reverse.



*Torneseello*

TORNESELLO: The *torneseello* was introduced in the mid 14th century to compete with the Frankish *denier tournois* in the Eastern Mediterranean. The name of the *torneseello* was derived from that of its competitor, but it was also referred to as the *vessilifero*,

after the reverse legend VEXILIFER VENETIARVM - "The Standard-bearer of the Venetians". The types are a short cross, as on the *denier tournois*, and a winged lion, the symbol of St. Mark.

On the next page is a chart outlining which denominations were struck by each of the doges. The name of each doge, as it frequently appears on his coins, is also given. Several points call for further explanation:

1. Doge Michele Steno (1400-1413) struck a *mezzanino*, valued at one *soldo*, plus a *piccolo* with a bust of St. Mark, for Verona and Vicenza.
2. Doge Tommaso Mocenigo (1414-1423) struck *piccoli* similar to those of his predecessor, Michele Steno.
3. Doge Francesco Foscari (1423-1457) introduced a number of new denominations: a *grossone da 8 (soldi)*, a *mezzo grosso*,



*Grossone da 8 (soldi)*

*Mezzo Grosso*



*Quattrino*

and a quattrino worth 4 *denari*.

4. Doge Pasquale Malipiero (1457-1462) continued to strike the *quattrini* and also issued a *piccolo* with a bust of St. Mark.
5. Doge Cristoforo Moro (1462-1471) issued several varieties of *piccoli*, including a copper one which featured his portrait bust.

VENETIAN COINAGE, 1156-1471

| DOGE                                | DUCATO | GROSSO | MEZZANINO | SOLDINO | PICCOLO | BIANCO | DOPPIO Q. | QUARTAROLO | TORNESELLO |               |
|-------------------------------------|--------|--------|-----------|---------|---------|--------|-----------|------------|------------|---------------|
| Vitale Michele II<br>(1156-1172)    |        |        |           |         |         | X      |           |            |            | V MICH        |
| Sebastiano Ziani<br>(1172-1178)     |        |        |           |         | X       |        |           |            |            | SEB           |
| Orio Malipiero<br>(1178-1192)       |        |        |           |         | X       | X      |           |            |            | AVRIO         |
| Enrico Dandolo<br>(1192-1205)       |        | X      |           |         | X       | X      |           | X          |            | EN DANDOL'    |
| Pietro Ziani<br>(1205-1229)         |        | X      |           |         |         | X      |           | X          |            | P ZIANI       |
| Jacopo Tiepolo<br>(1229-1249)       |        | X      |           |         |         | X      |           | X          |            | IA TEVPL'     |
| Marino Morosini<br>(1249-1253)      |        | X      |           |         |         | X      |           | X          |            | M MAVROC      |
| Ranieri Zeno<br>(1253-1268)         |        | X      |           |         |         | X      |           | X          |            | RA GENO       |
| Lorenzo Tiepolo<br>(1268-1275)      |        | X      |           |         | X       | X      | X         | X          |            | LA TEVPL'     |
| Jacopo Contarini<br>(1275-1280)     |        | X      |           |         | X       | X      | X         | X          |            | LA 9TARIN     |
| Giovanni Dandolo<br>(1280-1289)     | X      | X      |           |         | X       | X      | X         | X          |            | IO DANDVL'    |
| Pietro Gradenigo<br>(1289-1311)     | X      | X      |           |         | X       | X      | X         | X          |            | PE GRANDONICO |
| Marino Zorzi<br>(1311-1312)         | X      | X      |           |         |         |        |           | X          |            | MA GEORGIO    |
| Giovanni Soranzo<br>(1312-1328)     | X      | X      |           |         | X       | X      |           | X          |            | IO SVPANTIO   |
| Francesco Dandolo<br>(1329-1339)    | X      | X      | X         | X       | X       | X      |           |            |            | FRA DANDVLO   |
| Bartolomeo Gradenigo<br>(1339-1342) | X      | X      |           | X       | X       |        |           |            |            | BA GRODONIGO  |
| Andrea Dandolo<br>(1342-1354)       | X      | X      | X         | X       | X       | X      |           |            | X          | ANDR DANDVLO  |
| Marino Falier<br>(1354-1355)        | X      |        |           | X       |         |        |           |            | X          | MARIN FALEDRO |
| Giovanni Gradenigo<br>(1355-1356)   | X      | X      |           | X       | X       |        |           |            | X          | IO GRANDONIGO |
| Giovanni Dolfìn<br>(1356-1361)      | X      |        |           | X       | X       |        |           |            | X          | IO DELPhYNO   |
| Lorenzo Celsi<br>(1361-1365)        | X      |        |           | X       | X       |        |           |            | X          | LAVR CELSI    |
| Marco Corner<br>(1365-1368)         | X      |        |           | X       | X       |        |           |            | X          | MARC CORNARIO |

CONTINUED

| DOGE                                           | DUCATO | GROSSO | MEZZANINO | SOLDINO | PICCOLO        | BIANCO | DOPPIA Q. | QUARTAROLO | TORNESELLO |               |
|------------------------------------------------|--------|--------|-----------|---------|----------------|--------|-----------|------------|------------|---------------|
| Andrea Contarini<br>(1368-1382)                | X      | X      |           | X       |                |        |           |            | X          | ANDR 9TARENO  |
| Michele Morosini<br>(1382)                     | X      | X      |           | X       |                |        |           |            | X          | MICH L MAVROC |
| Antonio Venier<br>(1382-1400)                  | X      | X      |           | X       | X              |        |           |            | X          | ANTO VENERIO  |
| Michele Steno<br>(1400-1413)                   | X      | X      | 1         | X       | X              |        |           |            | X          | MICHAEL STEN' |
| Tommaso Mocenigo<br>(1414-1423)                | X      | X      |           | X       | X <sup>2</sup> |        |           |            | X          | TOM MOCENIGO  |
| Francesco Foscari <sup>3</sup><br>(1423-1457)  | X      | X      |           | X       | X              |        |           |            | X          | FRA FOSCARI   |
| Pasquale Malipiero <sup>4</sup><br>(1457-1462) | X      | X      |           | X       | X              |        |           |            |            | PA MARIPETRO  |
| Cristoforo Moro<br>(1462-1471)                 | X      | X      |           | X       | 5              |        |           |            |            | CRISTOF MAVRO |

For further information see: Nicolo Papadopoli Aldobrandini, *Le Moneta De Venezia*, 4 volumes. (Venezia-Milano: 1893-1919; reprinted in Bologna: 1967)

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#### NEW ZEALAND, EARLY RELEASE OF 1940 BRONZE COINS

by John DeMarais, Lincoln, Nebraska, NI #1539



The New Zealand pennies and halfpennies of 1940 were struck in London in 1939. Although they were ultimately intended to be a normal type within the New Zealand series, their initial release was to be made as part of the Centennial celebrations of 1940. However, because of a shortage of small change in late 1939, they were issued in December, 1939. This is one of the few times that coins have been issued with a "future" date. British bronze of 1971 was issued in sets in 1968 but was not current until 1971. Does anyone know of any other instances of early releases? Coins are often struck before the date on them, but early release seems to be unusual.

# BOOK REVIEWS

*ILLUSTRATED COIN DATING GUIDE FOR THE EASTERN WORLD*, Albert Galloway, 1984, Krause Publications, Iola, WI 54990. Paper cover, 136pp, \$9.95 from the publisher.

If anyone asked my vote for the Numismatic-Publication-of-the-Year Award it would certainly go to this little gem of a book. It is without a doubt the most useful book to emerge for 1984.

Although the title is a little misleading because the author also discusses Italian and Ethiopian dating as well as chronograms on German coins, this is a book that will help, enlighten and expand the collecting horizons of a number of coin collectors who have given up on trying to decipher non-Western dating and trying to understand what becomes a very easy and simple process, as explained by author Galloway. Through the use of charts and clear-cut examples, even the most arcane dates are made easier to determine and thus, add to the collecting experience of each one of us. The quote at the beginning of the book is most appropriate: "It is the dim haze of mystery that adds enchantment to pursuit". And this little book assists in a most simplified way of clearing up the "dim haze" of the varied and many dating systems found on world coins.

Galloway presents the material through a series of conversion charts for the major dating systems and then proceeds to examples of how to read the dates on specific coins. Here, however, some of the lesser dating systems are shown and explained. When developing his examples, the Author must have known some of us have a less than perfect attention span, in that each example is completely explained, even if it was just shown in a previous one. In this way the reader doesn't have to remember earlier discussions or formulae but can literally jump right to the country and coin of interest.

If there are faults that would keep this book from winning any prize, it is the sloppy editing. This seems to be endemic in numismatic literature released this year. Among the more obvious errors are instances in which the text doesn't always match the charts being referenced; there are errors in addition/subtraction for few of the formulae (which interestingly doesn't change the answers, which are correct); and in one case, there is a mismatch between the text and the title of the section to which it refers. Perhaps Krause can make these minor adjustments in the next printing. Personally, I would like to see the addition of a glossary for easier reference to the various codes that are used.

The book is divided into two sections. Section 1 contains explanatory information and the conversion charts mentioned. The information on the different types of calendars is most informative. The second section tells the collector graphically how to read the dates on coins in the 20 or so countries, of which Galloway describes seven different Chinese dating schemes! The coins are all identified as to catalog number and type and the author suggests that the *STANDARD CATALOG OF WORLD COINS* be used in conjunction with his book; the two certainly are interrelated. The graphics used to show how to find and identify

the dates are what make this book most usable.

If the average collector cannot determine the date on these types of coins, then the collector just doesn't want to know.

As for the applicability of this book and its information to paper money collectors, I would say that unless there is an addition of some of the strange numbering systems of countries like Cambodia, then it has limited use. The conversion tables of Arabic-to-Western and the Chinese regnal dating are helpful to any collector who has material that is dated.

Reviewed by Len Harsel

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*WORLD COIN AUCTION GUIDE (Germany, German States, Austria, Hungary, Liechtenstein)*, by A. de Ocampo. Available from A. de Ocampo, Box 14636, Orlando, Florida 32857-4636 at \$15.00 postpaid (\$17.00 overseas).

This publication is in 2 parts. The first is an introduction and guide for use of the second portion which consists of computer printout detailing recent auction appearances of coins listed. The printout identifies the coin by standard catalogue references such as Yeoman, Davenport and Friedberg, as well as by more specialized works. Coins are further identified by date, mintmark and denomination. Included is a brief description of each coin from a simple grade assignment such as "VF" to more detailed information such as "Sml. r.n., scratches, F/VF" or "Lt vio-grey tn, Ch. Br. Unc.". Prices realized are given in U.S. funds (converted from foreign currency if the auction was not called in U.S. funds). Listings indicate where the auction was held (which can indicate if a higher-than-usual price was attained) and the use of plus and minus signs indicate the trend, whether above or below catalogue. If a preponderance of plus or minus signs appears, this may indicate developing trends for that particular coin series.

This guide is one of 12 guides which are being published and which cover most major countries. The guides are available by subscription and are updated quarterly. The reader should contact the publisher for complete ordering details and options on all the guides.

Besides telling the reader whether the auction was held outside the U.S.A., in the country of origin or at prices above or below estimated value, the listing identifies in which auction the coin appeared and when it was held.

This particular guide lists coins for German New Guinea and Switzerland as well as those captioned in the title. Information given is current as of October 1984.

The auction guide is an interesting idea for world coins. It is useful to the collector as it helps identify pricing trends for countries' coins which the collector may be unaware due to distance from the trend-setting market centre. Also, the identification of the auction firm is helpful in that it enables the collector to form a better view of market conditions due to variations in firms. As such, it is a decidedly useful reference to the collector.

Reviewed by George Dunn

*COIN WORLD ALMANAC* (4th Ed.). Softcover, \$14.95 postpaid. Hardcover, \$25.00 postpaid. Available from Amos Press, Box 150, Sidney, Ohio 45365, USA.

The 4th edition of this almanac was released in November, 1984. The previous edition was published in 1978.

The first 10 chapters are mostly devoted to U.S. coins, but the last 11 chapters are international in scope. Contents of the chapters are as follows:

- 1 - A Numismatic Review of the past 7 years.
- 2 - Lawmakers and Coinage in Washington.
- 3 - Numismatics and U.S. Law.
- 4 - Gold and Silver.
- 5 - U.S. Mints and their Products.
- 6 - Background and Facts on the U.S. Treasury.
- 7 - History and Working of the Federal Reserve.
- 8 - U.S. Bureau of Engraving and Printing.
- 9 - U.S. Paper Money.
- 10 - Development of U.S. Coinage.
- 11 - Summary of Numismatics from Ancient Times to Date.
- 12 - World Coins (Including How to Collect Them) and a Chart on Olympic Coins.
- 13 - Major Type of Coin and Paper Money Errors.
- 14 - Grading of Coins and Notes, Weights and Measures, Coin Storage and Preservation.
- 15 - Information on Ordering Coins by Mail.
- 16 - Listing and Discussion of Numismatic Museums Throughout the World.
- 17 - History of Major World Numismatic Clubs and Professional Organizations with Details About Their Services and How to Contact Them.
- 18 - Coin Investment, Trends of U.S. & Canadian Coins.
- 19 - Major Numismatic Collections and How a Coin Becomes Rare.
- 20 - Listing of Books with Good Background Data on U.S. & World Coins, Paper Money and Exonumia.
- 21 - Glossary of Basic Numismatic Terms.

A truly encyclopedic work of about 1,000 pages and 2 inches thick which deserves to be in every club library. Far from being just a bunch of dry facts, the book is interesting to read and provides a wealth of background data on many phases of numismatics. Highly recommended.

Reviewed by Jerry Remick

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*THE MacMILLAN ENCYCLOPEDIA OF NUMISMATICS*, by Richard G. Doty. Hardcover, 366pp, 6½" x 10". Published by Collier-MacMillan Canada Inc. Available from MacMillan Publishing Co., Front & Brown Sts., Riverside, N.J. 08075 at US \$27.95 postpaid.

This work belongs in the library of every keen numismatist and coin club. It is an excellent gift for anyone interested in numismatics.

About 450 terms pertaining to all branches of numismatics are discussed at length. Each page is divided into 2 columns of large print with over 650 illustrations throughout the dictionary. Each definition is generally half a page long with some a full page or more and is

devoted to a discussion of each term. The terms pertain to all phases of numismatics, including coins, medals, decorations and paper money. Coin weights and primitive money are also covered. Each term begins with a brief description, followed by a longer account of the subject.

Dr. Doty is Curator of Modern Coins and Paper Money at the American Numismatic Society in New York and he has been collecting coins since he was 8 years old.

Reviewed by Jerry Remick

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ТЕХНИКА МЕДАЛЕРНОГО ИСККУСТВА (The Technology of the Medallic Art). N.V. Odnoralov. 158pp, illus., hardbound. Moscow 1983.

This compact handbook is addressed to students at institutes of higher learning in the fine arts and in the industrial arts. It offers a 40-page overview of the development of medallic art, first in the general sense and then as applicable to Russia, with brief appreciations of the principal Russian medallists since 1700. The discussion turns then to the elements of conventional allegory any symbolism, form the classical period to contemporary Soviet "emblematics".

Another 20 pages are devoted to problems imposed by the requirements of bas-relief imagery, methods of conveying a sense of perspective and depth, and the use of conventional devices in composition. The last part provides instruction in bas-relief modelling, transfer methods, galvanoplasty, techniques for developing various medallic surface finishes, etc.

The book is not oriented numismatically, but the first 100 pages are in fact a useful numismatic compendium, well illustrated and clearly set forth. The author's style is straightforward, direct and readable.

The book is advertised in Victor Kamkin's current List @ \$2.95. However, orders for under \$5.00 are assessed a \$1.00 handling charge. Kamkin's address is 12224 Parklawn Drive, Rockville, MD 20852.

(Review reprinted from the *Journal of the Russian Numismatic Society*.)

Reviewed by Randolph Zander

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ARMENIAN NUMISMATIC BIBLIOGRAPHY AND LITERATURE, by Y. T. Nercessian. Los Angeles: Armenian Numismatic Society, *Special Publication*, No. 3, 1984, 729pp, casebound. Typeset at Abril printing, manufactured by BookCrafters, Inc. Library of Congress Catalogue Card Number: 83-73245. ISBN 0-9606842-2-0. \$50.00 + shipping (\$1.50 in USA, \$2.00 elsewhere). Available from: Armenian Numismatic Society, 8511 Beverly Park Place, Pico Rivera, CA 90660, U.S.A.

The author states that his purpose is to list all Armenian numismatic bibliography (1980 inclusive) with abstracts of their content within one volume. However, the book is more than that.

The section on periodicals (@ 200) lists all the sources which are referenced in the bibliography section of each subject.

The format is a derivative from the bibliographical style of the American Numismatic Society *Numismatic Literature* and the Library of Congress *National Union Catalog*. Each publication is assigned an abstract number, entered under alphabetical order by its author's name, and is followed by the bibliographic information pertaining to it. When the subject is in a language other than English or a Western European language, the title is romanized and its translation is bracketed; this is followed by the title and author's name in the native alphabet. Here it is worth noting that the Library of Congress scholarly transliteration system is utilized for Armenian, as well as Arabic, Georgian, Greek, and Russian romanization. This type of transliteration systems is not easy to read but necessary for scientific work. The author has prepared all these transliterations meticulously to offer the public a treatise which can be used as a comprehensive reference.

All of the literature abstracted are not necessarily scholarly numismatic material. The author has benefited from numerous works published in peripheral fields such as history, art, daily news, etc.

Abstracts about the content are prepared both in English and Armenian. Material found in Armenia and other parts of the Soviet Union, not accessible to the author, have been abstracted by Kh. A. Mousheghian and H. V. Sarkissian of the State Museum of Armenian History, Yerevan.

Most subjects are grouped under typological sections. The subject index provides references to abstracts in relating fields.

More than 1300 numismatic publications are reviewed and abstracted. In the appendices are found the Library of Congress transliteration key for the Armenian alphabet, chronology of the Armenian dynasties, and the legends of the Artaxiad and Cilician Armenian coins.

The vast subject index, covering 44 pages, is unique in its kind. Next to each monarch's name, his regnal period and dynasty are mentioned. Because of numerous names given to the same Armenian coin by different numismatists, the author has chosen to give the description of each Armenian coin represented in the index.

The index of more than 600 author names is the chapter which closes the book.

Most of these publications are not easily accessible to the scholar and collector. Some of them are extremely difficult, if not impossible, to locate. A bibliography with an abstract of each title will enable the student to research his topic within a short span of time which would normally have taken him weeks or even months and much more resources than the cost of this book. A word of caution here: the book is not written to replace the literature on Armenian numismatics, but to aid the student to carry on his research more efficiently, and save precious time in selecting all the titles necessary in preparation of his works.

*ARMENIAN NUMISMATIC BIBLIOGRAPHY AND LITERATURE* is a must for the

student of numismatics who is interested in the history of Armenia, Transcaucasia, Asia Minor, and finally the history of the Near and Middle East. Here the history of Armenia and the Armenian people is portrayed through the eyes of numismatics spanning more than 2500 years.

Reviewed by Y. T. Nercessian

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## CONTENTS OF THE NI REFERENCE COLLECTION

(Members desiring to borrow coins from the collection for research purposes, lecture use, non-competitive displays, or any other reason, may do so by paying postage and insurance both directions.)

Key to Listing: FINE or better for all Yeoman types. VERY GOOD or better for all Craig types. Underlined = Uncirculated. C = Complete. C = Complete with at least one uncirculated type. CX (----) = Complete except those listed. X = Except. Mints are not listed unless multiple for the particular year.

INDIA - British, Regal (continued from last month): Y47a - 1939C; Y49 - 1939C; Y49a - 1939; Y50 - 1939B; Y50a - 1940B, 1941, 1942; Y51aHC - 1943B, 1943P, 1944B; Y51aFC - 1945L; Y52 - 1942C, 1943, 1944; Y52a - C; Y53 - 1939B; Y53a - 1942B, 1943C, 1944C, 1945C; Y53b - 1940B, 1941B, 1946C; Y54 - 1940; Y54a - CX (1944C, 1945C); Y54b - 1941B, 1946B, 1947C; Y55a - 1940B, 1943; Y55b - 1943B, 1944B, 1945B; Y56a - 1940B; Y56b - 1943L, 1944L, 1945L sm. date; Y57a - 1942, 1944B, 1945B sm. date; Y58 - C; Y59 - 1946; Y60 - 1947B.

INDIA - Republic: Y61.1 - 1950C; Y61a - CX (1951C, 1953Hd, 1954Hd, 1955B,Hd); Y62 - 1950B; Y63 - 1950B, 1954B; Y64 - C; Y54 - 1951B; Y65a - CX (1956, 1957); Y66a - 1956; Y67 - 1950; Y68 - 1957B, 1959B,C, Hd, 1960B, 1961B,C; Y68a - 1962B,C, 1936H; Y69 - 1957B, 1959B, 1962C, 1963B,C; Y70 - 1958C, 1959B, 1961C, 1962B,C, 1963C; Y71 - 1957B, 1958B, 1959C, 1961B, 1963C; Y72 - 1949C, 1960C, 1962B, 1963B; Y73 - 1961C, 1962C; Y74 - 1962; Y75 - 1964B,C; Y76 - 1964C; Y77 - 1965B,C, 1967C; Y78 - 1965B,C, 1966C; Y78a - 1967B short 5, 1968B; Y79 - 1965B,C, 1966C; Y79a - 1969C; Y80.1 - 1964B; Y81.1 - 1964C; Y81.3 - 1969C; Y82 - ND B; Y82a - C; Y83 - ND B; Y84 - C to 1968 X (1967B,C, 1968Hy), 1971H, 1972B; Y85 - 1965B, 1966B,C, 1968B, 1975H; Y86 - 1970B; Y87 - CX (ND B); Y88 - ND B; Y89 - ND B; Y93 - 1971B, 1972B; Y93 - 1973B, 1974B, 1975B; Y94.1 - 1973B, 1974B; Y95.2 - 1975B; Y98 - 1973B; Y107 - 1976B.

### INDONESIA:

British Sumatra: C22 - 1786; C25a - C.

Dutch: Doit 1750, 1755; Duit 1743, 1964; CF2 - 1784, 1786, 1790, 1794; CG2 - 1780; CH2a - 1786, 1790.

Batavian Republic: C50 - 1808; C76 - 1826; C66 - 1826.

Dutch East Indies: Y1 - 1860; Y2 - 1859, 1860; Y5 - 1954; Y6 - 1854; Y12 - 1909; Y14a - 1941S, 1942S, 1945S; Y15 - 1917; Y15a - 1941P, 1942S; Y17 - 1922; Y18.2 - 1937, 1945; Y20 - 1945; Y21 - 1938, 1942, 1945P,D; P33 - C.

Indonesia: Y1 to Y7 - C; Y13 - C; Y16 to Y21 - CX (Y18 - 1973).

Riau Archipelago: Y8 to Y12 - C; Y11a - C; Y12a - C.

Timur: Y1 - 1951; Y8 - C; Y12 - C; Y13 - C.

IRAN: Y23 - AH1326; Y24 - AH1318; Y29 - C; Y71 - AH1333; Y104 - SH1315; Y128 - 1317, 1320, 1321/0; Y129 - 1324; Y130 - 1323, 1324; Y131 - 1323; Y137 - 1343, 1346, 1348; YA140a - 1340, 1342, 1343, 1346, 1348, 1349, 1351, 1352. (To be continued next month).

# MEMBER NOTICE PAGE

C. C. Andrews, 8516 Bluebonnet Rd., Dallas, TX 75209: I would like to acquire for my personal collection: Paraguay 1975 1,500 Guaranies (Proof), KM-44, KM-46, KM-48. Also, please write if you have knowledge of events resulting in the use of pre-Columbian Indian Artifacts in the designs of Paraguayan coins.

John L. Pieratt, 2635 S. Hydraulic, 32C, Wichita, KA 67216: As a specialist in the area of French Indo China and vicinity, I would like to receive replies to the questions and needs mentioned as follows:

French Indo China - Piefort Essai Y3 1896, Pei. Y4 1908 One Cent. Both coins on edge has wing bronze essai, some stamped upside down. Why?

French Indo China - Why Y9.3 1921, 1922 Heaton mint piastre has no robe lines or blade tip? Did Paris mint or Heaton polish them off. San Francisco 1921, 1922 has robe lines, blade tip and other date Paris mint.

French Indo China - Why PE8 1947 Piastre comes smooth edge, others twenty-four fine lines around edge?

Cambodia - 1906 Four Fr. module has AXC inside diamond on edge. What does this mark mean?

Need Bibliography on Morlon, Galtie, Lay.

Laos 1952 50 Cent. Vietnam 1953 50 Su. Bazor designer, Cochet engraver, or one do obverse, other reverse. Cambodia 1953 50 centimes. Bazor designer, engraver obverse Galtie, reverse Lay. Is this correct?

ATTRIBUTION SERVICE: The NI Attribution Committee will accept from NI members only, any numismatic items, whether paper, metal, or whatever, for attribution. We must limit the items to a TOTAL OF SIX (6) MAXIMUM. The cost is just advance payment of return postage, including sufficient for insurance or registration, if desired. Send to NI Attribution Committee, P. O. Box 2057, Saugatuck Station, Westport, Conn. 06880, USA.

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## ISRAEL, 100 SHEQALS, 1984

*by John DeMarais, Lincoln, Nebraska, NI #1539*

With inflation proceeding at an annual rate of 400 to 600 percent, new denominations of coins are an almost monthly occurrence in Israel. The cupro-nickel 100-sheqal coin is the latest in a seemingly endless series. When it appeared this summer, it was equal to about 50 cents U.S. but by the end of 1984 its value had fallen to 17 cents. It is 28.7mm in diameter and has a notched edge. The 100-sheqal coin is about the same size as the former cupro-nickel lira of 1963-1979; however, it is 1000 times more valuable in nominal terms! I am tiring of new Israeli coins, and I can imagine the frustration of the Israeli public when they see this seemingly endless series of inflationary denominations.

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